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The Function of Guidance Services in a Central Washington State Junior High-School

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THE FUNCTION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES IN A CENTRAL WASHINGTON STATE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The philosophy of guidance in the junior high-school has changed in recent years and will undoubtedly change more as new processes become tried and proven. The teacher's role in guidance is of the utmost importance. Educators on all levels of teaching should study continuously the new trends and experiments in guidance processes if they wish to be considered as qualified leaders in the teaching field. Pre-service and in-service training which stresses the teacher's responsibility in the use of guidance techniques should be a part of the qualifying process in the teacher's preparation.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It appears that teachers are frequently negligent in giving students proper guidance. This neglect may often result in the development of student-teacher problems. Many "problem students" are sent to the counselor without any effort having been made by the teacher to reach a solution. Counselors are expected to perform many duties in addition to those related to guidance and counseling. The counselor is usually so occupied in dealing with student referrals by teachers that he is unable to find time to confer with many non-

problem students who would profit by some counseling.

II. NEED FOR THE STUDY

It is possible that many of the non-problem students are being neglected by the teacher or the counselor, probably because these students, classified as average or good in behavioral and academic qualities, have shown no particular need or have made no particular demands for attention.

An important question basic to the need for this study was as follows: Do referrals to the counselor by teachers reflect an understanding of accepted guidance principals? This question seemed to reveal a need for two evaluations: (1) the need for a re-assessment of student referrals to the counselor, and (2) the need for the counselor to re-evaluate his work in the guidance program.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It was the purpose of this study (1) to investigate the roles of the teacher and the counselor in the guidance field; (2) to analyze counselor-student conferences in a junior high-school, recorded over a five year period; and (3) to suggest some procedures and methods of improving the guidance techniques of junior high-schools having similar problems in guidance.

IV. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The record of conferences used in this study were for boys only; no comparative record was available for girls.
2. The total annual school enrollment ranged from approximately 950 during the school year 1952-53 to 1100 in 1956-57; of this number approximately one-half were boys.
3. Conferences regarding illness, injuries, lost articles, or locker problems were not recorded in the data on conferences.
4. There were many instances of multiple student conferences with the counselor; the data shows them as individual conferences.
5. The name of the junior high-school was omitted in order to avoid any possible reflection upon students or teachers.
6. The data was gathered over a period of five school years.
7. The analysis was limited to cases referred to the counselor by teachers and parents, or to those cases the counselor himself initiated.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I. PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

The philosophy of education, basic to the problem of guidance, should be reviewed to aid our thinking on what might be expected of teachers and counselors in the junior high-school.

Education is a program designed to help the student meet all life situations to the best of his ability. Generally speaking, these situations, in addition to experiences in the home and community, include society, economics, world situations, development of personality and other social traits, and learning to cope with the constant changes in our world.

> When we speak of the philosophy of a school, we refer to the purposes that give direction to the activities which it sponsors, to the beliefs which the teaching staff holds concerning the development of human personality, to its conception of the nature of the good life in our society (2:32).

It is apparent that any statement concerning the philosophy of education must be of a broad and general nature. Kelley (12:15) has stated that the philosophy of the general education approach in curriculum has been that it is a <u>functional</u> program, influencing daily living and aiding the individual to attain his maximum

development for effective participation in all areas of life. She believed that this program would center around such functions as living in the home, leisure, citizenship, production, consumption, communications, and group life.

According to Yeager (18:114), the child, because he is an individual, has a personality to develop. He must take certain responsibilities for his own acts and, as he develops, take his place in his social environment. Immersed in social change which constantly influences his way of living, the child must make constant adjustments. To aid him there is obvious need for cooperation among all who are associated with his development or influence his behavior in any manner. The school must take the leadership and work cooperatively with the home and the community to this end.

Yeager (18:117) believes that a philosophy of cooperative endeaver provides most adequately for that type of education satisfying the needs of the whole child. The problem is how to coordinate and harmonize, under the cooperative direction of all who are and should be concerned in the endeaver, those desirable learning situations in which the child finds himself toward the finer ends of a better living in a democracy.

II. PHILOSOPHY OF GUIDANCE

The basic philosophy of educational guidance is so similar to the philosophy of education that it is difficult to separate their meanings. Many authorities on this subject agree that the definition of education as related to our schools is also the definition of guidance. Speaking of the transitional trends in education, Kelley said that "there is a growing tendency to think of the functions of education, guidance, curriculum, and learning as being substantially one and the same" (12:13). Alberty (2:379) concluded that "the definitions of modern guidance and education are essentially the same," and he added this question:

> Why has it been necessary for the guidance agencies, and the curriculum, which in the modern school embraces all student activities carried on under the school, to exist side by side as separate entities?

The answer is to be found, he said, in the character of the traditional high-school curriculum. Alberty (2:330) believes that the teacher is primarily responsible for guidance and counseling activities, and that this function should be carried on as an integral phase of instruction.

In general, the purpose of guidance, according to Jones, has been "to assist the individual, through counsel, to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpretations in connection with critical situations

in his life in such a way as to insure continued growth in ability for self-direction" (11:Frontispiece).

The foregoing philosophies of education and guidance were used as a foundation for the following discussion leading to and concluding with an analysis of the function of guidance services in a junior high-school.

III. UNDERSTANDING THE ADOLESCENT

In order to discuss adequately the teacher's role in guidance at the junior high-school level, it seems advisable at this point to review some of the major characteristics and differences of the adolescent, and to emphasize the importance of recognizing that the characteristics of the adolescent at the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade levels are very different from those at other grade levels, and that the misunderstanding of the adolescent by teachers is one of the basic causes of student problems referred to the counselor.

Physically the adolescent is in a period of rapid growth and change. Growth rates vary widely. Some mature more rapidly than others. A boy's physical strength and prowess has an important effect on his social relationships. He is especially concerned about the impression he makes on others. Cronbach states it this way:

> Self respect and social acceptance, and therefore all emotional adjustment, during these [adolescent] years depend to an unusual degree on physical adequacy (6:81).

Other common physical traits are awkwardness, a changing voice, often a poor complexion, and a strong urge for activity.

The adolescent, insecure about many things, seeks to find security with his peers. When he is alone around the school grounds or building he is often ill at ease and strives to join the group. Gaining the approval of his peers is very important to him, often even more important than the approval of his parents or teachers. Frequently he is a member of a gang or club, and he is intrigued by secret codes, insignia, and club rules.

Adolescents are in varying stages of the awareness of sexual urges. They often have a furtive curiosity about sex. Close contact with the opposite sex may cause much emotional distress. Although girls are usually enthusiastic about school dances, boys often are not interested or cannot "face-up" to such even though secretly they might want to dance.

Many social and personal problems are apt to disturb the adolescent boy. One might be having to dress according to the demands of parents instead of following the fads and customs adopted by his peers. Physical appearance, acne, home conditions, family status, or even

his name (which he may imagine is too common, too silly, or too different) are often elements causing distress. If the gang has set certain attitudes toward dress, hair style, or home work, he must agree with these attitudes or lose status with his peers.

Daydreaming, hero worship, participating in the phantasies of imagined adventures, gullibility to "wild" stories or rumors and often repeating them for fact are common traits of the adolescent boy.

The adolescent will usually imitate or admire those peers who seem to be leaders or are, in his opinion, popular. Devices such as loudness or boisterousness are frequently used to attract attention.

The adolescent generally knows right from wrong; that is, he usually knows what society expects from him, but may not feel any strong <u>personal</u> compunction to act correctly. He may, for example, spit gum on the floor. The adolescent admires adult leaders who have been successful directors in certain youth activities, and teachers, counselors, or administrators whom he considers to be friendly and fair.

The adolescent is apt to become unpopular with his peers if he appears too eager to satisfy the teacher's demands. Grade marks often drop from the good or excellent received in the elementary school to fair or

poor marks in the junior high-school. Frequently the adolescent develops an attitude of nonchalance or indifference toward that which has been unsuccessful, distasteful, or seemingly too difficult for him to attain. This indifferent attitude is assumed by him in the belief that it will help to maintain status with his peers.

Gruhn and Douglass (9:26) spoke of the "chronic indifference toward school by early adolescents." They said that children who enjoy school during their early and middle elementary grades seemed to find it uninteresting, if not actually distasteful, when they reached grades seven and eight.

> Some teachers were inclined to blame the children for this indifference to academic learning. The more discerning educators and parents realized, however, that if so many children found the educational program so distasteful, the school itself might be at fault.

Kelley listed the following characteristics of adolescence which, she said, were agreed upon by most writers in the field of guidance:

1. Adolescence is a transitional period bridging childhood and adulthood.

2. Adolescence, as a product of our particular economic culture, represents an interval of years in which long periods of training are deemed necessary before youth can enter skilled work, the professions, or other vocations.

3. One must recognize that in this transitional experience into adulthood, adolescents form a sub-group in the culture. It is a peer

culture, where "to be like one's friends" is extremely important. The peer culture is able to extract conformity from the individual adolescent because of the latter's dependence on his own age group for anchorage during this transition stage to adulthood.

4. Social and family problems loom large in their adjustments. Peer group adjustments are often complicated by family patterns of ethical standards which clash with those of the peer groups.

5. Another outstanding characteristic of adolescents is their excess energy and vitality. Adolescents have so much energy that they use it recklessly. They are subject to fatigue and overstrain. How to harness this multiple amount of energy is a challenge to educators, for once channeled into constructive and interesting activities and learning experiences, there is hardly any limit to its potentialities for constructive work (12:29).

An understanding of these characteristics is a necessary requirement in the teacher's role in guidance.

IV. WIDE DIFFERENCES IN JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

Wide differences occur between adolescents at the junior high-school level. These differences are found to occur with respect to abilities, achievements, experiences, family background, personality, behavior, interests, and health.

In a typical seventh grade class we can find such variations as the following: ages ranging from 11 to 14, heights from 50 to 66 inches, weights from 70 to 130 pounds, I.Q.'s from 70 to 140, reading range from third

to twelfth grade, and mental age from 8 to 17 (based on 12 as an average age).

In the junior high-school there are wide variations in physical coordinations and athletic skills, wide variations in vision, hearing, energy output, metabolism and nutrition, wide variation in verbal, numerical, musical, and artistic aptitudes. Achievements in other subjects are dependent on the amount of practice or experience the children may have out as well as in school. Economic differences effect intellectual stimulation and ideals transmitted by the home to the child. Cultural differences between the middle and the lower classes are significant. An appropriate comment at this point is the fact that teachers belong largely to the middle class, and commonly fail to understand the true living and social conditions of the child belonging to the low class.

The following comments were taken from Cronbach, Educational Psychology:

> In special accomplishments - sports, music, crafts and hobbies - the children will range from almost complete inexperience to considerable skill.
>
> Family background, as identified by such factors as occupational differences of parents, ethnic characteristics, social attitudes, travel experiences, number and variety of books, tools, equipment or other objects in the home, number and ages of children and adults or any other index, will be as heterogeneous as other variables.
>
> The goals, the values, the attitudes, and other

personalities will be as manifold as the more measurable attributes (6:131).

Gruhn and Douglass discuss these differences in the following quotation:

> In the junior high-school we find boys and girls at all stages of physiological, physical, and social maturity. In fact, at no level in the entire school system do we find greater differences among boys and girls. These differences are of particular concern to the teacher of physical education and athletics, to the director of glee clubs and the chorus, and to those who are planning social activities for the school. Some of the boys are sufficiently well developed to participate in the more rugged sports of the secondary school, while others are much like the youngsters in grades five and six. The girls may be interested in dating, while many of the boys in their classes shun the opposite sex. The voices of the boys in the chorus and glee club are changing so rapidly that the director finds it difficult indeed to plan more than a few weeks ahead.
>
> Even in the academic subjects these extreme differences among pupils create difficult instructional problems. The maturity of the pupils has a bearing on their reading interests in the English class; their physical development may cause reluctance to participate in oral activities before the group; and their desire for physical activity may make it difficult for them to sit still for a long part of the day in academic classes. Then too, the range of differences increases tremendously in the achievement level of pupils in certain fundamental skills. For instance, it is not at all unusual to find pupils in the eighth grade whose reading skills are at the fourth grade level, while others are reading as well as the typical twelfth grade pupil. Similar differences exist among pupils in arithmetic, spelling, oral or written expression, and penmanship. These wide differences among early adolescents tax the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the teachers of the academic subjects as they attempt to work effectively with all pupils (9:27-28).

The role of the junior high-school teacher in guidance is indeed challenging.

V. FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE

Erickson and Happ (7:4) quoted a summary on guidance by Dorothy Beaumont of John Burroughs Junior High-School, Los Angeles, California:

> The entire guidance program is organized to assist boys and girls to develop to the fullest their capacities, interests, and talents in order to prepare them to take their places as fine citizens of our country.
>
> In our attempt to define the functions of guidance as they relate to other phases of the teacher's instructional program, we planned:
>
> (1) That guidance would include the social, personal, educational, and vocational adjustment of the individual.
>
> (2) That guidance would emphasize the individuality of the child as well as the interests of the group.
>
> (3) That guidance was not something which should be provided for only problem children, but a program in which all children should be included.
>
> (4) That personal guidance, to be most effective, should prevent rather than cure.
>
> (5) That the classroom teacher should be the one to do most of the guidance work.

There has been some misunderstanding by teachers, counselors, and administrators as to the meaning of guidance and its functions. The classroom is the most natural place for teachers to work closely with students and become acquainted with their personal qualities, abilities, and problems.

Alberty has said that there is probably no area of secondary level education in which more confusion exists than in the meaning of guidance and its application to the curriculum. He added, "This confusion is more than academic, for it results in confused practices in the high-school" (2:322).

According to Gruhn and Douglass (9:265), one of the chief purposes of the homeroom is to provide a place in the school program where such intimate and personal relations may be developed between teacher and pupil that effective individual guidance can take place. The amount of individual guidance that can be carried on in the homeroom depends upon the preparation, experience, and personal qualifications of the homeroom teacher.

Success in guidance work in the junior high-school is dependent on teachers, counselors, and administrators being qualified in guidance work by virtue of their training and experience. Factors such as the ability to establish rapport with students, having a natural love and understanding of children, neatness and attractiveness in dress and habits, a pleasant voice, and the ability to impart to the students an atmosphere of fairness and security are important. Being qualified means more than just having a knowledge of subject and resource material

In summary, many authorities on the techniques of

guidance are convinced that the classroom (and particularly the homeroom) is the place where the major portion of guidance should take place.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESIS

Student referrals by teachers to the counselor reflect a misunderstanding of the purpose of counseling and guidance services. These services can be greatly improved by elimination of many unnecessary referrals. Counseling and guidance services can become effective and efficient only when the entire junior high-school teaching staff have an understanding of its true purposes. Student referrals by teachers are frequently for disciplinary purposes, many of these of a trivial nature. In most instances the teacher has made little or no effort to solve the problem presented by the student. Much of the time and energy of the guidance counselor is used up by conferring with student referrals that should have been handled by the teacher.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Do referrals to the counselor, by teachers, reflect an understanding of accepted guidance principles? The answer to this question was sought in the attempt to analyze thousands of student-counselor conferences extending over a period of five years.

An accurate account of all student-counselor conferences for boys was recorded daily by the counselor in a loose leaf notebook on which columns were drawn showing the date of the conference, the grade-year of the student, the student's last and first name in this order, the reason for the conference, an indication whether the parent conferred with the counselor by telephone, and the teacher who made the referral to the counselor or was involved in the conference.

Tally sheets, used for summarizing these conferences, were kept in a loose leaf notebook called the Summary Record. On these tally sheets were columns containing the students' last and first names in this order and arranged alphabetically to make it easy to locate any student, the number of disciplinary conferences, the number of non-disciplinary conferences, the "A" and "B" honor roll, and the number of failures.

The data gathered from the record of conferences was placed in the following tables and graphs:

1. Actual copies of two pages taken from the record of office conferences.
2. A facsimile of the tally sheets called the "Summary Record."
3. A five year summary of enrollment and types of conferences.
4. A comparison of the number of boys having no conferences with the number of boys who had conferences.
5. The numbers and per cents of conferences with boys relative to those on the honor roll and those with failing grades.
6. The distribution of conferences relating to types of problems classified as non-disciplinary and as disciplinary.
7. The subject areas from which referrals came.
8. The distribution of conferences showing referrals to counselor by individual teachers in the academic and nonacademic areas.
9. The distribution of conferences showing the number of boys involved in one, two, three, etc. conferences.
10. The job distribution of the boys' counselor.

The tables and graphs made from data derived from the records of conferences covering a period of five years purport to show that there is need for a re-assessment of student referrals by teachers to the counselor and that student referrals, by teachers, do not reflect an understanding of accepted guidance principals.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH DATA

The following tables are designed from data carefully recorded by the boy's counselor of a junior high-school located in central Washington State. Data was recorded over a period of five school years, from 1952 to 1957 inclusive. The total enrollment of this school during these five years increased steadily from approximately 950 to 1100 students. The school staff consisted of a principal, a boys' counselor, a girls' counselor, and up to forty-four teachers.

The counselor's office consisted of a waiting room with seating for eight or ten persons and an inner office where conferences were held.

The counselor wrote notes at the conclusion of each conference. Near the close of the day these notes were recorded in a loose-leaf notebook and also on the student's anecdotal record kept in his cumulative folder for easy reference.

Table I-A (page 23) and Table I-B (page 24) are exact copies of pages one and twenty-eight, respectively, taken from conferences recorded by the counselor for the school year 1955-1956. There were 36½ pages recorded for that school year. For obvious reasons, the real names of

students and teachers were not used. These tables illustrate the main source of data used in this thesis.

TABLE I-A shows conferences recorded during the opening days of school in the fall quarter. This is a time when many adjustments must be made to a new environment, to new classmates, to new teachers, to new courses of study, and to new rules and regulations. It is a time for seeking information about pupils, checking past records, achievements, talents, and problems. This is the time also when parents seek information about the school procedures and give information about any special problem their child presents. Football training is in full swing, and swimming takes place during P.E. classes as well as after school. These things are listed to show that many factors that influence boys in the fall quarter are not present later in the year.

TABLE I-B shows the conferences in the third quarter, recorded during the first part of March. Adjustments to the school environment are well established. Routine procedures follow a regular pattern and are accepted by teachers, students, and parents. The spring season, which usually brings about new problems, is just around the corner. Basketball season will soon be over, to be replaced by track and baseball. This is also the usual season for much preparation for musical concerts

TABLE I-A

OFFICE CONFERENCES
1955-56
(Actual copy of page one)

DATE	GRADE	NAME	REASON	OFFICE VISIT	PHONE CONF.	TEACHER
8/29	7	Doak, Joe	Hardship case-Father dying	M		
8/30	8	X X	Deaf-Lip reader-Hearing aid	M		
9/1	7	X X	Father died Apr.'55,needs help			
9/1	9	X X	Conditional admit.-behavior problem			
9/1	9	X X	Skipped Algebra Class		M	Smith
9/1	9	X X	" " "		M	"
9/8	8	X X	Disrespect-slapped by teacher			X
9/9	9	X X	Request for 2nd transfer denied			
9/9	9	X X	Truant			
9/9	9	X X	Smoking			X
9/12	9	X X	Enrolled at H.S.-Sent back here			
9/12	8	X X	Poor vision-crooked spine	B		
9/12	7	X X	Difficulty in adjusting	B		
9/12	8	X X	Fighting			
9/12	9	X X	Suspended for smoking-2nd offense		M	
9/12	9	X X	Smoking			
9/12	7	X X	Transferred to band	M		
9/13	8	X X	Request for transfer was denied			
9/13	7	X X	Wears hearing aid-introduced			
9/13	8	X X	" " " "			
9/13	7	X X	Lost math. book		M	
9/14	9	X X	Skipped detention			X
9/14	9	X X	Readmitted following suspension			
9/14	9	X X	Withdrawn to Buoyville			
9/14	7	X X	Personal adjustment-lonely		M	X
9/14	7	X X	" " -financial			
9/15	9	X X	Skipped detention			X
9/15	9	X X	Won't work-suspend for insolence			"
9/15	7	X X	Gen'l information-Appreciation		F	
9/15	9	X X	Readmitted to school	F		
9/15	8	X X	Non-cooperation			X
9/15	8	X X	" "			"
9/19	8	X X	Detention home re: theft		M	
9/19	9	X X	Juvenile Dep't re: stolen money			
9/19	8	X X	Special tutor arranged for	M		
9/19	7	X X	" " " "	M		
9/19	9	X X	Poor class attitude			X
9/19	9	X X	Skipped detention			X
9/20	8	X X	Disrespect			X

TABLE I-B

OFFICE CONFERENCES
1955-56
(Actual copy of page 28)

DATE	GRADE	NAME	REASON	OFFICE VISIT	PHONE CONF.	TEACHER
3/7	8	Doak, Joe	Eating lunch in hallway			Smith
3/7	8	X X	" " " "			X
3/7	8	X X	Insubordination			X
3/7	8	X X	Delinquency-Attendance-Juv. Dep't.			
3/7	9	X X	Insubordination			X
3/7	9	X X	Personal adjustment		F	
3/8	9	X X	" "		F	
3/8	8	X X	Complaint re: teacher discipline		M	X
3/9	8	X X	Poor behavior in band			X
3/9	8	X X	Personal health	M		
3/9	9	X X	Skipped detention			X
3/9	9	X X	Left grounds without permit			
3/9	7	X X	Insubordination re: low trousers			X
3/12	9	X X	Talking in class			X
3/12	9	X X	Readmitted from D.H.-8 days			
3/12	9	X X	Gum			X
3/12	8	X X	Does not keep locker locked			X
3/12	9	X X	Withdrawn-Quit school		M	
3/13	7	X X	Personal adjustment-Teacher prob.			X
3/14	9	X X	Spanked for leaving grounds daily		M	
3/15	8	X X	Left grounds daily-no permit			
3/15	9	X X	" " " " "			
3/15	7	X X	Spitwads			X
3/15	8	X X	Non-cooperation			X
3/16	7	X X	Skipped detention			X
3/16	9	X X	Attendance-Personal Adjustment		M	
3/16	7	X X	Poor behavior-Personal Adjustment	B	B	X
3/16	9	X X	Skipped detention-Insubordinate			X
3/16	9	X X	Non-cooperation			X
3/16	7	X X	Personal adjustment			X
3/19	8	X X	Entered from Stites, Idaho			
3/19	7	X X	" " " "			
3/19	8	X X	Pupil-teacher personal adjustment			X
3/19	9	X X	Non-cooperation			X
3/19	9	X X	Withdrawn-Quit school			
3/19	8	X X	Cursing in classroom			X
3/19	9	X X	Financial-Needs baseball shoes		M	
3/19	9	X X	Readmitted to class			X
3/19	9	X X	Unprepared in assignment			X

given by the choir, band, and orchestra, or by the science departments for the Science Fair. Talent shows and P.T.A. carnivals often take place during this month. It is apparent, then, that TABLE I-A and TABLE I-B represent two different environments.

In the columns labeled "Office Visit" and "Phone conference" the letters stand for the following: M = Mother, F = Father, B = Both parents. The letters in these columns indicate conferences in which the parent came to school to confer with the counselor or in which the parent conferred with the counselor by telephone.

The actual number of conference entries made per year by the counselor are as follows:

1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57
1270	1107	1235	1412	1308

This data is also shown in TABLE III (page 29).

A careful study of TABLE I should bring to the observer's attention the question as to how much real guidance was practiced by some of the teachers before making these referrals to the counselor, and how much real counseling and guidance was given by the counselor who was obliged to handle so many problems along with many other duties. (See TABLE X, page 48).

Some consistent method was necessary in gathering the desired data from these large numbers of conferences.

TABLE II (page 27) represents the type of tally sheet used in securing information from TABLE I. These sheets were kept in a looseleaf notebook. Blank spaces were left after each alphabetical group of names to allow space for new entries.

TABLE II shows the number of absences, tardies, disciplinary conferences, non-disciplinary conferences, the honor roll, and the number of subject failures.

The names of all boys enrolled were listed in alphabetical arrangement in order to simplify the tallying. The absence and tardy columns were not used in the tables in this thesis. The true names of the students were not used in TABLE II.

For every conference of a disciplinary nature held between Joe Apple and the counselor, a tally mark was placed in the disciplinary column. The same was true of other columns, as shown in TABLE II. The "Honor Roll" column indicates whether the student was on the "A" or "B" honor roll. The "Failure" column shows the number of subjects in which the student had failed for that year.

This Summary Record was kept up by daily entries. It was useful to the counselor as well as to other staff members in getting a quick view of a student's standing, for instance, as a candidate for some student office.

TABLE III (page 29) reveals for each year the

TABLE II

SUMMARY RECORD (Tally Sheet)

1956-57

NAME		ABSENCES	TARDIES	DISCIPLINE	NON-DISCIPLINE	HONOR ROLL	FAILURE
Apple,	Joe	1111	111	1111	11		1
X	X	1			1	A	
X	X		1				
X	X	1111 1111 11	1111				2
X	X				1	B	
X	X	11	1	1	1		

total number of boys enrolled, the number of counselor-pupil or counselor-parent conferences for each of the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades, the total number of 7th, 8th, and 9th grade conferences, the number of conferences in which the parent conferred in person with the counselor (referred to as parent visits), the number of parent-counselor conferences by telephone, the number of referrals to the counselor by teachers, the number of disciplinary type conferences, and the number of non-disciplinary type conferences.

The data shown in this table was gathered from TABLE I (pages 23 and 24), or from the tally sheet TABLE II, page 27).

These conferences were for all types of problems. The total number of conferences per grade shows a pronounced and progressive increase from the 7th to the 9th grades. These conferences were for all types of problems.

TABLE III indicates that some years are better than others; that in some years certain groups had more conferences than in other years when the enrollment was greater. For example, the total number of 8th grade conferences in the school year 1952-53 was 473 when the total enrollment of boys was the smallest (517), while the total number of 8th grade conferences was only 450

TABLE III

FIVE YEAR SUMMARY OF ENROLLMENT
AND CONFERENCES

	56-57	55-56	54-55	53-54	52-53
Total number of boys enrolled	625	602	553	529	517
Total number of 7th grade conferences	357	270	160	247	263
Total number of 8th grade conferences	450	494	492	302	473
Total number of 9th grade conferences	501	648	583	558	534
Total number of conferences	1308	1412	1235	1107	1270
Number of parent visits for conferences	157	126	112	104	133
Number of parent-counselor conferences by telephone	218	215	249	207	194
Number of referrals to counselor by teachers	645	932	715	609	719
Number of disciplinary type conferences	634	843	876	636	853
Number of non-disciplinary type conferences	734	569	359	471	417

when in 1956-57 the total enrollment of boys was the greatest (625).

TABLE III also shows that the number of referrals to the counselor varies from year to year regardless of the total number of boys enrolled. It shows that there were more referrals in the year 1952-53 than in 1956-57 when many more boys were enrolled.

Disciplinary conferences show a greater number in 1952-53 than any other year except 1954-55. In comparing disciplinary conferences with non-disciplinary conferences, TABLE III shows that the year 1954-55 had the poorest ratio on non-disciplinary conferences.

TABLE IV (page 31) shows the number of boys enrolled in each grade, along with the total enrollment of boys for all three grades. Next, it shows the number of boys for each grade that were not conferred with by the counselor of this junior high-school on any item. This is followed by the total number and the percentage of boys with whom the counselor had no conferences. The last line of TABLE IV reveals the actual number of boys involved in conferences, for each grade, along with the total number and the percentage of boys who conferred with the counselor. TABLE IV shows this data for two separate years, 1956-57 and 1955-56. This was done in order to enhance the validity of the percentages shown.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF BOYS HAVING NO CONFERENCES WITH THE NUMBER OF BOYS WHO HAD CONFERENCES

	7th Grade	8th Grade	9th Grade	Total	Per Cent
1956-57					
Total number of boys enrolled	170	261	194	625	
Number of boys not conferred with	77	132	63	272	43.5
Number of boys involved in conferences	93	129	131	353	56.4
1955-56					
Total number of boys enrolled	171	227	204	602	
Number of boys not conferred with	73	87	80	240	40.0
Number of boys involved in conferences	98	140	124	362	60.0

Attention should be focused particularly on the percentages of boys who were not conferred with by the counselor. This percentage amounted to 43.5 for the school year 1956-57 and 40 per cent for the school year 1955-56. It is felt that these two years show adequate evidence that a large number of students could be considered as neglected in their right for some counseling. These percentages of "neglected" boys have reference to the quiet boy, the conformist, the boy who is considered as "average" and who often goes unnoticed because he presents no particular problem.

As the saying goes, "It is the squeaking wheel that gets the grease." The counselor conferred with the sixty per cent who demanded his attention, and there was no time left for the other forty per cent. The continual job of trying to "clear" the office waiting room of those students, parents, and teachers who wished to confer with the counselor on some problem was only one of the counselor's many duties. (See TABLE X, page 48).

TABLE V (page 34) reveals the number of boys on the "honor roll" for each of the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades, along with the per cent of the total number of boys enrolled who were on the "honor roll." This is followed by the number of boys on the "honor roll" who had conferences, and by the number and percentages of boys

who did not have conferences with the counselor.

In a similar manner TABLE V reveals the number of boys receiving one or more failing grades for each of the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades, accompanied by the per cent of the total number of boys enrolled who had received at least one failing grade for the year. This is followed by the number of boys on the failure list who were conferred with or who were not conferred with by the counselor.

Identical data is shown for two separate years; 1956-57 and 1955-56. In the school year 1956-57, TABLE V indicates that out of 625 boys enrolled (See TABLE IV, page 31), 20.3 per cent were on the honor roll, eight per cent of all boys enrolled were honor roll students who had conferred with the counselor, and 12.3 per cent of all boys enrolled were honor roll students that had never had a conference with the counselor.

In like manner, out of 625 boys enrolled, 19.7 per cent were on the failing list for at least one subject; 17.1 per cent of all boys enrolled who were on the failing list had conferred with the counselor, while 2.5 per cent of all boys enrolled who were on the failure list had no conferences with the counselor.

Similar data is shown for the school year 1955-56.

TABLE V indicates that more conferences were

TABLE V

THE NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF CONFERENCES WITH BOYS RELATIVE TO THOSE ON THE HONOR ROLL AND THOSE WITH FAILING GRADES

1956-57

	7th Grade	8th Grade	9th Grade	Total	Per Cent
HONOR ROLL					
Number of boys on A or B honor roll	36	55	36	127	20.3
Number of boys conferred with	12	26	12	50	8.0
Number of boys not conferred with	24	29	24	77	12.3
FAILING GRADES					
Number of boys with failing grades	26	37	60	123	19.7
Number of boys conferred with	24	29	54	107	17.1
Number of boys not conferred with	2	8	6	16	2.5

1955-56

HONOR ROLL					
Number of boys on A or B honor roll	46	47	35	128	21.2
Number of boys conferred with	18	16	7	41	6.8
Number of boys not conferred with	28	31	28	87	14.4
FAILING GRADES					
Number of boys with failing grades	26	36	44	106	17.6
Number of boys conferred with	19	31	36	86	14.2
Number of boys not conferred with	2	5	8	20	3.3

consummated in the failing area than in the "honor roll" area.

TABLE VI-A (page 38) is a bar graph showing the classification of the non-disciplinary types of student-counselor conferences for the school year 1956-57. The non-disciplinary conferences have been distributed into several general groups. A total of 1308 student-counselor conferences were held with boys during this school year (see TABLE III, page 29). This graph shows the number of non-disciplinary conferences for each classification in grades seven, eight, and nine.

TABLE VI-B (page 39) is a bar graph showing the classification of disciplinary types of student-counselor conferences for the school year 1956-57. The disciplinary conferences have been distributed into eleven general groups. There were a total of 1308 student-counselor conferences held with boys during this school year (see TABLE III, page 29). TABLE VI-B indicates the number of disciplinary conferences for each classification in grades seven, eight, and nine.

DEFINITIONS FOR TABLE VI-A

NON-DISCIPLINARY

ATTENDANCE - Unexcused or excessive absences and tardies.

COMPLAINTS - By students, by parents, by teachers regarding events, regulations, courses of study, facilities, etcetera.

GENERAL INFORMATION - Regulations, schedules, fees, courses of study, activities, admissions, withdrawals, transfers, fees, fines, lost articles, investigations, records.

PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT - Personal, family, financial, health, and school problems. Readmissions from suspensions, counseling on social problems, future goals, boy-girl problems.

SCHOOL WORK PROGRESS - How is he doing? Why are his grades poor? Congratulations for good work. Do extracurricular activities interfere? Lack of interest, unprepared, program adjustments, planning for high-school and college or for some vocation.

DEFINITIONS FOR TABLE VI-B

DISCIPLINARY

CHEATING - Lying; forgery of parent name on papers, excuses, or report cards; copying unfairly.

DETENTION SKIPPED - Failure to stay after school when requested to do so.

INSUBORDINATION - Disrespect, insolence.

NON-COOPERATION - Disorderly conduct, indifference,

regulation broken, spit-wads, throwing things, chewing gum.

QUARRELING - Fighting, bullying, scuffling, rough play, arguing.

SMOKING - Smoking on or about the school property, passing out cigarettes.

THEFT -

TRUANCY - Skipping class or school.

VANDALISM - Marking or destroying property, committing acts which endanger safety.

VULGARITY - Swearing, obscenity.

TABLE VI-A and TABLE VI-B both indicate that the differences in the numbers of conferences for each grade were not great. Educators are often of the opinion that one of the grade levels in the junior high-school has more problems than the others. These tables indicate that the differences in the numbers of conferences in each grade are not extensive.

TABLE VI-A and TABLE VI-B give evidence that the greatest number of student-counselor conferences are in the disciplinary area; that the largest group in this disciplinary area was in the type of conferences classified as non-cooperation. It was in this non-cooperation classification that most of the referrals, by teachers to the counselor, were made.

TABLE VI-A

DISTRIBUTION OF CONFERENCES RELATING TO TYPES OF PROBLEMS CLASSIFIED AS NON-DISCIPLINARY

1956-57

NON-DISCIPLINARY		NUMBER OF CONFERENCES
Attendance	7	xxxxxxxx (16)
	8	xxxxxxx (14)
	9	xxxxxxxx' (17)
Complaints	7	xxx (6)
	8	x (2)
	9	(0)
Gen'l Information	7	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (58)
	8	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (64)
	9	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (64)
Personal or vocational adjustment	7	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (62)
	8	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (88)
	9	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (85)
Schoolwork progress	7	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (48)
	8	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (76)
	9	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx (92)

TABLE VI-B

DISTRIBUTION OF CONFERENCES RELATING TO TYPES OF PROBLEMS CLASSIFIED AS DISCIPLINARY

1956-57

DISCIPLINARY		NUMBER OF CONFERENCES
Cheating	7	x' (3)
	8	xx (4)
	9	x (2)
Detention	7	xxxxxxxx (16)
skipped	8	xxxxxxxxxxxxx' (27)
	9	xxxxxxxxxxxxxx (30)
Insubordination	7	x' (3)
	8	xx (4)
	9	xxxxxxx (14)
Juvenile	7	xxxxxxxx' (17)
delinquency	8	xxxxxx' (13)
	9	xxxxxxx' (15)
Non-cooperation	7	xxxxxxxxxxxxx

TABLE VII (page 41) discloses the percentage of referrals of boys by teachers who were teaching in the various academic and non-academic areas. This table divides the subjects studied in school into the two main classes, academic and nonacademic.

Every boy was enrolled in the academic subject division. For the school year 1956-57 there were 81 seventh grade boys, 105 eighth grade boys, and 142 ninth grade boys enrolled in this academic division involved in student-counselor conferences. This amounted to 52.4 per cent of all the boys enrolled in academic classes.

In the nonacademic division it was necessary to show each of the subject areas from which came the referral of the pupil by the teacher to the counselor. This was because all boys were not enrolled full time in all of these subjects. For example, all boys were enrolled in physical education, but the seventh graders attended this class only three times a week. All students used the library, but attendance there would not be regular. Science was not considered an academic subject because it was an elective in grades eight and nine and an exploratory course for grade seven, all of whom were required to take science for only one semester. At the close of mid-term those seventh grade boys who were in science were shifted into industrial

TABLE VII

SUBJECT AREAS FROM WHICH REFERRALS CAME

1956-57

	NUMBER OF REFERRALS PER GRADE			TOTAL NUMBER OF REFERRALS	NUMBER OF BOYS ENROLLED IN THESE CLASSES	PER CENT OF REFERRALS FOR BOYS ENROLLED IN THESE CLASSES
	7	8	9			
ACADEMIC SUBJECTS (including homerooms)-Languages, social studies, mathematics.	81	105	142	328	625	52.4
NONACADEMIC SUBJECTS (exploratory and short term courses-some not attended every day. Some were attended for only one quarter or one semester)						
P.E. and Health	13	21	34	68	625	10.8
Instrumental Music	29	10	2	41	175	23.4
Library	2	2	2	6	625	.9
Arts-Crafts	2	28	2	32	290	11.0
Industrial Arts	9	15	9	43	400	10.7
Science	10	14	31	45	250	18.0

arts, and vice versa. The same kind of shift was made with seventh graders at mid-term between music and arts-crafts.

The purpose of TABLE VII (page 41) is to show the subject areas from which referrals came.

TABLE VIII-A (page 43) shows the student referrals to the boys' counselor by each teacher in the academic subject area. The sex of each teacher and the subjects taught by that teacher are identified.

The bar graph is made up of sevens, eights, and nines indicating the actual number of seventh, eighth, and ninth grade student referrals by teachers to the counselor during the school year 1956-57.

TABLE VIII-B (page 44) reveals the student referrals to the boys' counselor by each teacher in the nonacademic subject area. The sex of each teacher and the subjects taught by that teacher are identified.

The bar graph is made up of sevens, eights, and nines indicating the actual number of seventh, eighth, and ninth grade student referrals by teachers to the counselor during the school year 1956-57.

TABLE VIII-A and VIII-B reveal that teachers of both sexes often vary widely in the number of student referrals they make to the counselor. Careful inspection of these tables discloses the fact that teachers with

TABLE VIII-A

DISTRIBUTION OF CONFERENCES SHOWING REFERRALS TO COUNSELOR BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS FROM ACADEMIC AREAS

1956-57

SEX	ACADEMIC SUBJECTS	GRADE LEVEL REFERRALS
M	Mathematics	7788899999999
F	"	779999
F	"	7888999999999999
F	"	7788
M	English, Social Studies, Math.	7788999
F	" " "	888
F	" " "	7777777788
M	" " "	7779999999999999999
F	" " "	89
M	" " "	77777888888888888888 99999888
F	" " "	7777777777778
M	" " "	88888999999999999999
M	" " "	7778
M	English, Social Studies	888888888888888
F	" "	777777777777777
M	" "	888889999
F	" "	88888888888888889999 99999999
F	" "	79
M	" "	88999999999999
F	" "	77777777
F	" "	77777778
M	" "	777778999
M	English, Social Studies, Spanish	8888888888999999999999
F	English, Social Studies, Bus. Sc.	999999
F	English, Social Studies, Reading	7777
M	English, Latin	999
F	English, News Writing	99999999999999999

TABLE VIII-B

DISTRIBUTION OF CONFERENCES SHOWING REFERRALS TO COUNSELOR BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS FROM NON-ACADEMIC AREAS

1956-57

SEX	NONACADEMIC SUBJECTS	GRADE LEVEL REFERRALS
M	Arts - Crafts	8
F	" "	778888888888888888888 998888888
M	Vocal Music	77777777777777777777 9988888888887777777
M	Instrumental Music	777777788888999999
F	" "	7789999
M	Science	9
M	"	88888888888889999999 99999999999999999999
M	Industrial Arts	77777788888999999999
M	" "	77788888
M	" "	88888
M	P.E.-Health, Ground Supervis.	77777777788888888889 99999999999999
M	" " " "	88888888899999999999 99999
F	Library	778899
	MIXED ACADEMIC AND NONACADEMIC SUBJECTS	
M	Social Studies, P.E.-Health	778
M	" " "	9

identical teaching loads in the same departments varied widely in the number of student referrals made to the counselor. This evidence seems to indicate quite clearly that good guidance and counseling procedures were not being practiced by some teachers.

TABLE IX (page 46) shows a distribution of disciplinary conferences for the school year 1956-57. It consists of a bar graph made of sevens, eights, and nines representing the number of student-counselor conferences in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in which only one conference was held, two conferences were held, three conferences were held, and so on.

The first line contains 21 seventh graders, 41 eighth graders, and 37 ninth graders for a total of 99 boys who had only one disciplinary conference with the counselor. Twelve and three tenths per cent of all seventh grade boys, 15.7 per cent of all eighth grade boys, and 19.0 per cent of all ninth grade boys had one disciplinary student-counselor conference. The second line shows data in a similar manner for boys who had only two student-counselor conferences.

This table reveals that, in most instances, one disciplinary conference was sufficient. Each line of the graph becomes shorter as the number of conferences increase, forming a general decreasing arc.

TABLE IX

DISTRIBUTION OF DISCIPLINARY CONFERENCES
SHOWING THE NUMBER OF BOYS
INVOLVED IN ONE, TWO, THREE, ETC. CONFERENCES
1956-57

(Example: 12.3 per cent of all 7th grade boys, 15.7 per cent of all 8th, and 19.0 per cent of all 9th grade boys had one disciplinary conference).

NO. OF CONF.	GRADE	NUMBER OF CONFERENCES PER GRADE 7	8	9	PER CENT 7	8	9
1	77777777777777777777888888888888888888888888888888888888888888999999999999999999999999999999999999	21	41	37	12.3	15.7	19.0
2	77777777888888888889999999999999999	8	11	17	4.7	4.2	8.7
3	7777777777778888889999	12	6	4	7.6	2.3	2.0
4	7888888999	1	6	3	0.5	2.3	1.5
5	7777888888999	4	6	3	2.3	2.3	1.5
6	77888999	2	3	3	1.1	1.1	1.5
7	7789999	2	1	4	1.1	0.3	2.0
8	789	1	1	1	0.5	0.3	0.5
9	99	0	2	0		0.7	
10	789	1	1	1	0.5	0.3	0.5
11	7899	1	1	2	0.5	0.3	1.0
12	88	0	2	0		0.7	
13	99	0	0	2			1.0
14	77889	2	2	1	1.1	0.7	0.5
15		0	0	0			
16	8	0	1	0		0.3	
17	9	0	0	1			0.5

TABLE X (page 48) discloses, in a general way, how the counselor's time was spent during three consecutive school days, from 8:00 A.M. until 4:00 P.M., during the month of March, 1957. During these three days the counselor carried a note pad with him constantly on which he recorded data for every function.

General job classifications were listed, and the notes were tallied as shown on TABLE X.

A similar three day record taken at another time would undoubtedly show some variance in the time spent by the counselor on these listed classifications. For example, no testing was shown for the three days relating to TABLE X. Staff meetings would change the total.

The counselor usually worked on records and other items related to his office until 5:00 P.M. This does not show on TABLE X.

The purpose of including this table is to show that the counselor had many duties in addition to spending approximately forty-six per cent of his time confering with students, teachers, and parents.

TABLE X

JOB DISTRIBUTION OF BOYS' COUNSELOR
FOR THREE DAYS IN MARCH, 1957

	MINUTES				
	1st DAY	2nd DAY	3rd DAY	AVE. TIME	PER CENT
Attendance	62	100	63	75	16.8
Conferences	254	130	231	205	46.1
Records	30	90	29	50	11.2
Lunch	13	10	15	13	3.0
Health - First aid	5	3	18	9	2.0
Supervision	38	60	95	65	14.6
General - Telephone, information, Requests, Inspecting, Visiting, Etcetera	35	30	20	28	6.3
Total number of minutes	437	423	471	445	100.0

(8:00 A.M. to 4:00 P.M. = 480 minutes)

CHAPTER VI

GUIDANCE - THE RESPONSIBILITY OF EVERY TEACHER

I. THE TEACHER AS THE CENTER OF THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

In chapter III, page 17, the statement was made that referrals to the counselor seemed to reflect a misunderstanding of the purpose of guidance services. It might well be added that these referrals also reflect a misunderstanding of the use of guidance by the teacher in his or her classroom. Chapter I, page one, stated that many of the students' problems are due to teacher failure to give proper guidance, and implied that frequently the teacher, instead of participating in a guidance program, referred his "problem students" to the counselor for a solution to an unsatisfactory predicament, while the teacher continued to give full time to the administration of the lesson assignments. "This pupil is a disturbing element," the teacher may say; "The class is better off without him."

Some administrators as well as some authoritarian teachers often think good classroom discipline to be a situation of silence and orderliness, with pupils being required to remain in their seats, to speak only when recognized by the teacher, and with students being expected to concentrate completely on the assignment

being administered by the teacher. Any deviation by a pupil from this routine procedure may result in his being sent to the office for being a problem child who causes a class disturbance, who sets a poor example by not doing his assigned lesson, who forgets his paper or pencil, who talks to his neighbors, or who does not pay attention.

It should be realized that the quiet, orderly room is not necessarily a happy room; that the quiet, orderly room is not necessarily an indication that good guidance procedures are being practiced. MacConnell covered this subject by saying:

> The modern teacher is not a taskmaster, but a guide and counselor. His pupils are not kept rigid and in silence in their seats, but are permitted to act socially, to move about and consult with others in the normal activity of learning. A limit to the hum and buzz of their work is set, but discipline problems dwindle when the pupil is interested and engaged (15:24).

Cronbach (6:117) states that the way a student's teachers, his peers, and his parents respond to him affects what he learns and how he integrates his own line of development. He further states:

> Teachers must consider all aspects of development in understanding the significance of any particular difficulty.
>
> Social factors determine interests, response to adult criticism and direction, and self assurance.
>
> ... development is a continuous cumulative process.
>
> What teachers do today may mar the pupil's readiness for important activities in the future (6:148).

Gruhn and Douglass (9:238) emphasize that every teacher should render some guidance service. Those who are specialists through background and training should serve as leaders in directing the program, in gathering and analyzing information about the individual pupils, and in the more difficult problems of counseling. These same authorities on guidance believe that the homeroom should be the center of the guidance program:

> The homeroom provides a splendid avenue for both individual and group guidance. Its effectiveness for guidance lies primarily in the fact that it permits an informal pupil-teacher relationship not so readily possible in the more formal atmosphere of the classroom. In the homeroom, the pupil is encouraged to express his own views, to challenge the opinions of his fellows and to discuss personal problems frankly with the teacher. This informal atmosphere makes the homeroom the key place in the entire guidance program (9:257).

Cox, Duff, and McNamara stated their fundamental belief that "the effectiveness of any guidance program depends, in large measure, upon the performance of the teacher" (5:70).

Kelley stated, "The homeroom is one of the central groups for the development of a successful guidance program," and added, "Guidance counselors should look to it as one of the best means for growth of their program" (12:203).

Adams (1:370-374) wrote on this same idea as follows:

> It would seem that most public schools should re-evaluate their philosophy and consider guidance the province of every person rather than the responsibility of a single person specifically designated as a guidance specialist. ... it seems logical that we consider the teacher, and specifically the core teacher, as being in the most effective position for guidance work, in consideration of the fact that he (a) knows the child best, (b) spends the most time with the child in effecting changed behavior, (c) has more contacts with the home, and (d) is the person with whom the child feels most secure.

II. SUGGESTIONS THAT COULD ADD TO THE ENHANCEMENT OF A TEACHER

Professional growth should be of prime concern to all teachers. They are expected to keep in touch with the latest theories and developments in all areas related to their work in education, including guidance practices. Broad interests and backgrounds in literature, art, music, the theater, political and world affairs, and social problems are desirable. Gruhn and Douglass (9:89) state:

> The teacher should have an unusually sympathetic understanding of children and their problems; he should be skilled in the use of the various instruments for studying children, and he should have some competence in guidance.

Among some educators there is some questioning of and opposition to the modern theories of guidance. Some of this opposition comes from those who are opposed to any change, from those who do not wish to be disturbed in their familiar and comfortable ways, and from those

who have a proprietary, precocious attitude toward their scholarly knowledge.

Simpson (16:7) said that whether a high-school teacher is subject-minded, reading-minded, or both, he will be interested in what Philip H. Falk, superintendent of schools at Madison, Wisconsin had to say:

> Many teachers who are products of highly specialized departments of universities firmly believe that they have been ordained to teach history or Latin or literature or mathematics or chemistry. Their body of knowledge is fixed, final and immutable. Their duty is to make available to students this body of knowledge. Whether a pupil understands what has been taught is of less consequence than that the teacher has taught it. Obviously these teachers believe they have no obligation to teach reading. Pupils should learn to read, once for all, they believe, before taking their course.

Whether Doctor Falk's statement is fair or unfair it certainly presents a real challenge, on the subject of guidance, to every subject teacher.

S. E. Torsten Lund insists on the importance of teachers keeping up-to-date:

> As Margaret Mead has pointed out in School in American Culture, many teachers reflect a world which no longer really exists, while their pupils will live their adult lives in a world greatly differing from even the present one. Teachers dare not live in the past. They are the persons in our culture who, while constantly striving to understand the present, ought also to be studying the most probable images of the future (14:7-13).

Under the title Education: A Changing Process, Caudill (3:22) made the statement that not so long ago - recently enough for most adults to remember - schools

were almost exclusively subject-centered. He stated that the pupil was considered largely as a charge whose job it was to become an adult as soon as possible. The business of the elementary schools was to promote literacy and to inculcate a small body of basic knowledge. The business of the secondary school was mostly to prepare students for college by way of formal academic study of those subjects now classified as liberal arts, despite the fact, Caudill said, that only a relative few of them went on to college. He said that the keynote of both schools was discipline. Teaching was formal and autocratic. Communication was from teacher to pupil except during recitation when direction was reversed. He commented that human rights and needs of the children were not given much consideration; the schools were almost uniformly uncomfortable and depressing. At this point a question might be asked: Just how far have guidance procedures progressed?

Personal characteristics are a factor in the success or failure of the teacher in his role as a leader in guidance procedures. The three F's in guidance should be Friendliness, Fairness, and Firmness. Claypool (4:6) agrees with the following statement:

> Teachers must be aware of the fact that, in the opinion of the students, the most desirable trait they [the teachers] exhibit is fairness; students appreciate fair treatment, not necessarily easy

treatment.

Sarcastic remarks, uncontrolled arguing, raising one's voice in anger, or deliberately embarrassing a student in front of his peers are personal characteristics not conducive to good teaching or guidance. A good teaching practice is to habitually speak to students in the same manner as the teacher wishes to be addressed by students. Cronbach stated that "almost all problems of school children relate to the needs for affection, for adult approval, for peer approval, for independence, and for self-respect (physiological needs are not included)" (6:100).

The personal appearance of teachers is of importance in setting examples of neatness, cleanliness, and good taste in what is proper to wear. "If you wear all the jewelry in the top drawer, your room will probably look like a rummage sale" (17:531-2). Students are observant, and their likes and dislikes for a teacher are often based on what they see.

Democratic procedures in the classroom encourage good guidance practices. The teacher should encourage and show pupils how to work effectively together. The pupil should feel that he has had a part in the planning of the work. He should be taught how to be courteous and considerate of others, and how to understand his

responsibility in our society. Cronbach believes that the teacher plays an important part in the social acceptance of a child:

> The teacher who demands too much obedience can intensify the conflict for the child who is trying to balance peer approval against adult approval (6:107).

The teacher who claims to have a sympathetic understanding of children certainly must agree with Caudill (3:24) that the child is a sensitive being with very real needs and rights whose all-around growth is particularly important in a democratic nation.

III. TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES OF GUIDANCE

The greatest burden for educational guidance falls upon the individual teacher. This is true whether the school has no titled counselor, a part-time counselor, or a full-time counselor. Most of the guidance activities are carried on by the homeroom and classroom teachers. It is essential, therefore, that teachers be prepared for their participation in the educational guidance program.

Teachers and guidance counselors should know how junior high-school adolescents differ with respect to interests, purposes, understandings, skills, and abilities. According to Kelley (12:64), they must know how pupils differ in their role in a group, in their cultural values, and in the way they respond to class-

room situations and curriculum experiences. They must know how pupils react as a result of the patterns of living in the home and in their regional environments, the kinds of people and leaders they respond to, and the way they differ in their concept of self and in their concepts due to church and family beliefs.

Another facet to the role of the classroom teacher in guidance is the aid he or she can give in the development of pupils through subject matter. Erickson and Happ express it this way:

> There are opportunities for social development, for self expression, for participation in group discussion, for information on occupations and how to be successful. The implications of the past for the present may be traced; ideals and standards may be established; logical methods of attacking problems may be learned; reading, personality, and other school difficulties may be discovered: tolerance and broad-mindedness may be developed and emotional stability encouraged through various subjects in the curriculum (7:68).

What kinds of information are needed? Froelich and Darley (8:7-8) list the kinds of information needed about a student as (1) scholastic ability, (2) past achievement, (3) aptitudes and disabilities, (4) interests, (5) personality adjustments, (6) health, and (7) family background.

Gruhn and Douglass give the following list of information that every teacher should have about his pupils (9:203-204):

1. Home and family backgrounds (social-economic status, language, number of children).
2. Psychological backgrounds (I.Q., Aptitudes, mental and emotional adjustment).
3. Health and physical backgrounds (hearing, sight, posture, serious illness and chronic disorders).
4. Educational and vocational interests (interest in school, goal, present vocational interest).
5. Cultural, social, recreational and hobby interests.
6. Out-of-school activities (vacation, employment, travel, organizations).
7. Educational achievement and participation (grades, tests, extra class activity).
8. Character, citizenship and conduct.
9. Social adjustment (relations with others, cooperation, friends, participation).

Valuable information can be found from the school records, from present and previous teachers, from the home, from the school nurse, and from the student himself.

Hamrin (10:231), in his check list for teachers, itemized the following information as needed for guidance: health, age, academic aptitude, mechanical aptitude, clerical aptitude, attitude towards himself and others, interests, and plans for the future.

Kelley lists the following as information needed by the teacher in guidance work:

> ... all the facts concerning his physical, mental, emotional, social growth, his family background,

> cultural attitudes, socio-economic status, the motivations and aspirations of his family. His needs, interests, motivations, desires, hobbies, wishes, spare time work should all be familiar to the teacher (12:64).

Sources of information to aid the teacher in the role of guidance should be readily accessible in the school office. The counselor should assist the teacher in getting acquainted with the records and in interpreting them. The counselor should try to obtain any needed information that is not shown in the records. The teacher should make every effort to know all the information available about his pupils.

The cumulative record of each student is usually a letter-sized filing folder containing a wide variety of pertinent information relative to the student's test scores, health and disabilities, home and school history, schedule of classes, school and personal problems, and outstanding achievements or abilities.

Following is an outline of what a cumulative folder might contain:

I Test results (Scores, graphs, percentiles, grade equivalents).

I. Q. scores

Basic skills

Achievement results

Reading scores

Aptitude scores

Personal interests

Vocational interests

II Questionaire

Basic information (address, telephone number, birth date, etc.)

Family information (name of parents, occupation, marital status, number of children, economic status).

School history (present and past subject marks or grades, previous schools attended, grades repeated).

Activities (offices held, organizations, athletic teams, plays, musical groups).

Talents

Hobbies

Difficulties and successes in school work.

List of several close pals.

III Health record

Audio

Visual

Immunizations

Disabilities

Serious illnesses

Other medical history

IV Permanent record

Identification and birth

Marks attained for each semester in each grade

Comments on aptitude, reliability, effort

Test scores on I. Q., Basic skills, Reading, Aptitudes

Attendance record

V Present schedule

Indicating the period, subject, room number, and teacher

VI Problems and conferences

Anecdotal record

Discipline problems

Poor work problems

Attendance problems

Other sources of information available to counselors and teachers are parent conferences, home visitations, and the Department of Special Education, which usually includes a school psychologist, an attendance investigator, and a director of guidance services. Additional sources of information are the county Juvenile Department, the State Department of Public Assistance, the county Department of Health, the Parent-teacher Association, Curriculum guides, college booklets and pamphlets on vocations, literature from

various industries, and literature on how to study, how to get a job, and on various careers (usually found in the library or the counselor's office).

IV. COMMUNICATION WITH THE HOME

Good communication with the home and community is an extremely important part of the teacher's role in guidance. Yeager (19:155) reminds us that teachers do not always realize that they are dealing with the parent's most cherished possession, perhaps an only child. Important emotional disturbances, such as those incident to adolescence and others well known to psychologists, may be taking place within the child's mind. The parent may be inimical to the school and to education generally, perhaps nursing an old grudge, or owing a year's school taxes. Social barriers bring about a feeling of aloofness. So many similar situations condition parent-teacher conferences that it is important to study each problem carefully.

Better understanding of the pupil would come about if each teacher could behold each child in relation to his home and community environment (19:159).

Conflicts between parents and the school grow mostly from teacher-pupil conflicts within the school. Yauch (18:216-217) expresses causal factors in this

regard as follows:

1. Many parents look upon teachers as different from normal human beings.

2. Many teachers view parents as exercising undue control over professional activities.

3. Unmarried teachers do not have the same points of view toward children as parents have.

4. Parents use their own school experiences as measures of their children's educational program.

5. Teachers' and parents' points of view on child development differ because of their training.

6. Teachers and parents have not yet accepted the child's education as a joint responsibility and do not take a joint interest in his welfare.

A constructive program in resolving conflicts is of great importance. Many conflicts arise out of the frailities of human nature, misunderstandings, and lack of appreciation of the other person's view point.

The report card is undoubtedly one of the greatest sources of conflict between the school and parents, largely because frequently there is little or no previous communication between the teacher and the parent. On this subject Erickson and Happ say:

> Too often the interest of parents and pupils in the teacher's mark is evident only at examination periods when grade cards are issued. Under these circumstances the meaning of marks issued is frequently misinterpreted. A common expression from pupils is "She gave me an M". Attention is given to the mark as a record rather than a measure of growth which it represents. Moreover, teachers must avoid such expressions as, "I gave him an M" (7:88).

Gruhn and Douglass (9:231) remarked that perhaps no other practices in the junior high-school have interfered more with meeting individual differences effectively than those of examinations, marks, and report cards. They go on to say that no matter how much a teacher may try to adapt the work in his classes to the needs and abilities of individual students, the effectiveness of his efforts is largely lost when time comes to give examinations, to give marks, and to issue report cards. "Obviously," they said, "it is impossible to have the individual pupil engage in learning activities adapted to his level of ability and then, at the end of a marking period, evaluate his work and mark him on the basis of a uniform standard that applies to all pupils."

In discussing parental dissatisfaction and misunderstanding over report cards, Yeager (19:157) itemized the following conflicts between pupil and parent, pupil and teacher, and parent and school:

1. Parent misunderstanding of the report.
2. Teacher unaware of home conditions.
3. Attitudes of the child reflected in parental attitudes.
4. Statements of the child accepted, and alibis cherished by parent.
5. Teachers often assume attitude of defense.

6. The child who is "out of gear" often feels irritation and resentment.

Some schools make a practice of issuing "Progress Reports" during the mid-quarter. This serves to advise the parents as well as the student as to the status of the students' achievements, and tends to eliminate the surprised upset that may otherwise happen at the end of the quarter.

Tools of communication are important factors in the role of a teacher in guidance. These may be listed as the report card, mid-quarter progress reports, letters or notes written by the teacher to the parent, report card "stuffers," the school paper, the school annual, bulletins, news articles in the daily news paper, handbooks, telephone conferences, Parent-Teacher Association, and public activities given by the school--such as open-house, talent shows, carnivals, and athletic or musical events.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

The neglect of proper guidance and counseling procedures by teachers often results in the development of student-teacher problems. Many of these "problem students" are sent to the counselor without any effort by the teacher to reach a solution. The counselor is usually so occupied in dealing with student referrals by teachers that he is unable to confer with many non-problem students.

Most authorities on guidance agree that the quality of education absorbed by our youth will be determined principly by the quality of the persons who teach; that skill in teaching is the teacher's most effective contribution to individual development and guidance; that an important factor underlying teaching skill is an understanding of individual students; that every school subject offers opportunities for guidance in understanding both personal and group relationships; that the recognition of worth and dignity of every individual is essential; that the purpose of education is the development of each individual for the fullest participation in the American democratic way of life; that it is desirable to have an amicable, informal school

atmosphere which promotes in students a feeling of security; that teachers are expected to be friendly, fair, and firm in their relationships with students, and to respect confidences; and that the majority of school guidance should take place in the classroom.

Counseling is an important tool of guidance. It is a relationship between two persons involving a process by means of which the counselee can come to understand himself so that he can solve his own problems. Thus this understanding diminishes the number of disciplinary problems that could otherwise develop.

The counselor's office should be a source of information regarding test scores, anecdotal records, personal and family history, academic, health, attendance records, and other means to assist in proper diagnosis.

Teachers, counselors, and administrators should recognize the students' needs for achievement, security, freedom from guilt and fear, a feeling of belonging, love and affection, understanding and knowledge, and a feeling of sharing.

Good guidance procedure will encourage the student to reach his potential development, and will assist him in the development of good study habits. It will not condone the ignoring of a student, calling him lazy, causing him to lose status, or the development of

guilt feelings. A tactful teacher will say, "We disapprove of your action. We do not disapprove of you."

An effective guidance program in the junior high-school must enlist the active interest and support of all the classroom teachers. The numbers of pupils enrolled in many of our secondary schools often make it impossible for the counselors to make frequent contacts with all the students. Teachers have a daily experience with their pupils and should endeaver to learn everything possible about them. There will be many opportunities for vocational, social, moral, civic, economic, and spiritual guidance which are considered as important as academic literacy.

There will be times when a student's conduct will be such as to require special counseling with the help of the principal, vice-principal, or counselor. Arrangements for these conferences should be made by the classroom teacher, and in most cases the classroom teacher should participate in the conference.

Most of the minor problems of discipline will best be handled by the classroom teacher. The offices of the principal or counselor should be used mainly for a positive guidance program, and should never be cluttered with the many minor discipline matters which the classroom teacher usually can handle adequately.

Occasionally it may be necessary to remove a pupil from the classroom. The following procedure is recommended:

1. The student should be sent to the principal's office for detention during the balance of the period. There should be no exception to this, as problems may occur when students are dismissed from class and are without adequate supervision.

2. It is the teacher's responsibility before leaving the building that day, to confer with the principal, vice-principal, or counselor and the student concerned. Deferring the conference to another day is not advisable. This conference can be arranged, depending on the problem, in either of the following ways:

    1. Personal interview and a counseling conference with the pupil alone, or with pupil and parents, or a student-principal/vice-principal-teacher conference in either the teacher's classroom or the office.
    2. In serious cases requiring more time, and after the initial student-teacher-principal/vice-principal or counselor conference, the teacher may request the administrator or counselor to assume the responsibility for

the disposition of the problem.

Every attempt should be made by the teacher and the administrator or counselor to guide the student in good manners and serious behavior. There may be instances when a student is incorrigible, or is unwilling or unable to profit by the program of education offered. Cases of this sort can, by arrangement, be referred to the Department of Special Education or some other school psychological agency for special testing and diagnosis.

The hypothesis of this study was that the student referrals by teachers to the counselor reflect a misunderstanding of the purpose of counseling and guidance services; that elimination of many unnecessary referrals to the counselor would result in improved counseling and guidance services; that in most instances the teachers had made little or no effort to solve the problem presented by the student.

The evidence presented in this study which tends to support the hypothesis is as follows:

1. During a five year period the total number of student-counselor conferences was so great that it was probable that, in most instances, a good job of counseling was not possible.

2. At least forty per cent of the boys were never involved in a student-counselor conference largely

because they were good average students who never presented a problem and therefore did not require any extra attention.

3. Considering the twenty per cent of those students who were on the honor roll, twelve to fourteen per cent were never conferred with by the counselor.

4. Considering the seventeen to nineteen per cent of those students who were on the failure list, only two or three per cent were not conferred with by the counselor.

5. The great preponderance of student referrals to the counselor were of a disciplinary nature.

6. Fifty-two per cent of the referrals came from the academic subject areas, showing that referrals from the academic and nonacademic areas are fairly equal.

7. In a comparison of referrals by individual teachers who were teaching identical subjects there was wide variation in the number of student referrals made to the counselor. These data clearly show a misunderstanding of the purpose of counseling and guidance services.

From the above evidence a likely conclusion would be that in the areas of teaching and supervision it appears that teachers are frequently negligent in giving students proper guidance; that their student referrals to the counselor are often excessive indicates

that little or no effort was made on the part of the teacher to solve the problem before resorting to a referral; that guidance and counseling should be understood and practiced by every teacher; that the office of the counselor should be used predominantly for a positive guidance program and should not be cluttered with the many minor disciplinary matters which the classroom teacher can usually handle adequately.

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